

SCHOOL LIFE

OFFICIAL JOURNAL OF THE ★ ★ ★ ★ ★
OFFICE OF EDUCATION

THE EDITORIAL

Half-Day Sessions

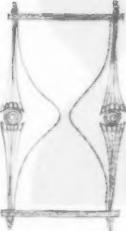
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November 1957

THE STOLEN YEARS



OF the 31.5 million children in our public schools last year, there were 2.3 million for whom we actually had no room.

But we made room for them somehow. We had to. We crowded more desks into limited classrooms, we resorted to buildings not intended for school use, we went on half-day schedules. And in the end, we managed.

In the end, however, we were not proud of what we had done. True, we had provided schools for those 2.3 million, but only a makeshift kind; crowded and inadequate quarters for 1.5 million of them; less than a full day for the other 840,000.

We had done even worse. Every time we had opened the door to a classroom and ushered in another child, we had taken a little more space from each child already there. And so, in the end, we had crowded not only the 1.5 million but every one of their classmates.

This year we're leaning on the old halfway measures again. Again, we *have* to, for our severe shortage of classrooms continues. Again, we are crowding millions of children into our schools. Again we are slashing the school day for hundreds of thousands more.

For all these children and their teachers I feel a deep concern. But at this moment I want to concentrate on those children who have only half-day schedules, whose teachers are burdened with double shifts. What, actually, is happening to them in school?

Children on half-day schedules attend school less than the 5 or 6 hours most States require as a minimum. If they are on the single 4-hour session so common nowadays, they are deprived of an hour a day, on the average. And by the end of a school year they have lost a full 2 months. Multiply 2 months by the number of years this condition continues, and you will see that elementary children alone could lose almost 2 full years of schooling.

When we steal school hours and days and years from children, we rob them of much more than time.

U. S. DEPARTMENT OF HEALTH,
OFFICE OF EDUCATION

CARROLL B. HANSON
Director
Publication Services

SCHOOL LIFE
November 1957

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and programs affecting education. Pub-
lished monthly. \$1.00 per copy.

Printing approved, Bureau of the Budget, Aug. 16, 1955. Confents not copyrighted. Subscription: Domestic, \$1 per year; foreign, \$1.25; 2- and 3-year subscriptions available. Single copies, 15 cents. Send check or money order (no stamps) to the Superintendent of Documents, U. S. Government Printing Office, Washington 25, D. C.

Educational news

EVENTS AND DEVELOPMENTS of national significance

Youth Fitness

PRESIDENT Eisenhower, in his concern for the welfare of young Americans, in 1956 created two organizations to promote the fitness of youth: the President's Citizens Advisory Committee on Fitness of American Youth and the President's Council on Youth Fitness.

The Committee and the Council met in their first joint annual conference at the United States Military Academy, West Point, N. Y., September 9 and 10. From discussions of the need for youth fitness and the means of attaining it, the conference concluded—and so reported to Vice President Nixon—that it is the local community, with the help of State and Federal governments, that must provide the necessary programs.

The Citizens Committee's 100 members are business, professional, athletic, and education leaders. Carter Burgess, president of TWA, is their chairman. The Council, appointed by the President from his official "family," has six members: Vice President Nixon (chairman), and the Secretaries of Agriculture; Defense; Health, Education, and Welfare; Interior; and Labor.

Conference participants considered facilities, publicity, guidance, research, and leadership for promoting youth fitness.

Conference members felt that public lands and parks might be used more advantageously for recreation programs. They favored a nationwide telecast by President Eisenhower to alert the American public

to the need for physical fitness. They expressed the belief that professional guidance is necessary for the success of any fitness program.

The conferees emphasized the importance of school programs of health, physical education, and athletics, as well as other aspects of schooling in meeting the needs of youth fitness.

On the Air

BECAUSE officials of the National Broadcasting Company agree with the U. S. Department of Health, Education, and Welfare that "education of future citizens is just about the most important business in America," eight NBC-owned radio and television stations in as many leading cities across the country are presenting a series of weekly programs on this one subject: *Know your schools*.

The series, announced on September 25 by Secretary Folsom and Commissioner Derthick on Dave Garroway's show *Today*, began on the weekend of October 12-13 and is running through five more, concluding in American Education Week, November 10-16. It is being carried by WRCA and WRCA-TV, New York City; WRCV and WRCV-TV, Philadelphia; WRC and WRC-TV, Washington; WNBC and WKBN, Hartford-New Britain; WBUG, Buffalo; WMAQ and WNBQ, Chicago; KRCA, Los Angeles; and KNBC, San Francisco.

Each station, working with the Office of Education, is telling its story in terms of local needs and interests; thus the subject is being approached

in eight different ways each week. Together, the stations are giving \$1 million worth of time to the series.

Distributive Education

DISTRIBUTIVE education super-visors and teacher trainers from State and Territorial departments of education held their first national conference since 1948 from September 30 to October 4 in the Office of Education.

The conferees—about 84 in all—met to discuss training for the distributive occupations and, from their discussion, to prepare a report that would serve as a guide for distributive education in the coming year.

The distributive education conference was timed to follow the September 23-25 meeting of the President's Conference on Technical and Distributive Research for the Benefit of Small Businesses, so that conferees could hear reports on it from several of their fellows who had attended the earlier conference.

Topics for discussion during the distributive education conference were both broad and specific. One general session—for instance—took up trends affecting distribution; another, broadening the scope of distributive education. Group discussions covered teaching and teacher recruitment; services required; the development of distributive education; cooperation with other vocational services; the need for research; planning State leadership guides; and suggestions for a program of action.

A highlight of the program was a

panel discussion, on October 2, by members of the Secretary of Commerce's National Distribution Council; Four business leaders and a Department of Commerce official.

Members of State departments of education and universities who assisted in the planning of the conference were Louise Bernard, Virginia; James A. Dorsey, Connecticut; Roy Fairbrother, Wisconsin; Warren G. Meyer, University of Minnesota; Cecil Stanley, Nebraska; Charles W. Steadman, University of Pittsburgh; and Rulon C. Van Wagener, California.

Office of Education staff members who served as daily chairmen were James H. Pearson, Assistant Commissioner for Vocational Education; John A. Beaumont, director of the Distributive Education Branch; and four program specialists of the branch: Donovan R. Armstrong, Clyde W. Humphrey, G. Henry Richert, and George Sanders. Ward P. Beard, assistant director for Vocational Education, was a resource person for the conference.

The Distributive Education Branch is preparing the final report on the conference for publication this month.

Report on Migrant Conferences

FULL report of the two conferences on planning education for agricultural migrants, sponsored by the Office of Education in mid-spring of this year, is now in print. Paul E. Blackwood, specialist for elementary education in the Elementary Schools Section of the Office, who prepared the report, will furnish copies at your request.

Emphasis on Asia

MEETING for the first time west of the Mississippi, the U. S. National Commission for UNESCO will hold its Sixth National Conference in San Francisco, November 6-9. To emphasize Asian-Western understanding and to stimulate American interest in Asia, the conference theme this year will be *Asia and the United States: What the American Citizen*

Can Do To Promote Mutual Understanding and Cooperation.

Attendance is by invitation only, but the four general sessions will be open to the public. Speakers at the plenary sessions will include Under Secretary of State Christian A. Herter and UNESCO's Director General, Luther H. Evans.

The U. S. National Commission for UNESCO has 100 members appointed by the Secretary of State. Sixty of these represent national voluntary organizations; the other members have been individually appointed. The Federal Government has 10 representatives; State and local organizations and institutions, 15; and 15 members are delegates at large. The Commission acts in an advisory capacity to the Government of the United States in matters relating to UNESCO and as liaison between American citizens and UNESCO to coordinate the work of UNESCO and educational, scientific, and cultural organizations of the United States. The Commission itself will hold an annual meeting in San Francisco just prior to the national conference.

Chairman of the Commission is John R. Richards, Chancellor of the Oregon State Board of Higher Education. Among members of the Commission are Senator Leverett Saltonstall; Senator John J. Sparkman; Representative A. S. J. Carnahan; Representative Hugh Scott; Leonard Carmichael, director of the Smithsonian Institution; Lawrence G. Derthick, U. S. Commissioner of Education; Eugene Ormandy, conductor of the Philadelphia Symphony Orchestra; John Walker, director of the National Gallery of Art; and A. F. Spilhaus, dean of the Institute of Technology, University of Minnesota.

Several programs outside of the Sixth National Conference itself will mark the event. Like San Francisco's Museum of Art, for example, museums throughout the United States are observing November as Asia month with special exhibits of Eastern art and culture.

Research Contracts

BETWEEN August 15 and mid-September the Office of Education signed 10 more contracts with universities and State departments of education under its cooperative research program.

Three institutions and departments will focus on *education of the handicapped child*: The California State Department of Education, concerns and rewards of rearing the mentally retarded child (E. P. Willenberg, director); Purdue University, psychological characteristics underlying the educability of the mentally retarded child (W. E. Martin and A. H. Blum, directors); and Wayne State University, verbal learning among children with reduced auditory acuity (J. H. Gaeth, director).

Three more will study the *development of special abilities*: Delaware State Board of Education, developmental guidance at the elementary school level (M. M. Heffernan, director); Harvard University, personality factors in developing communication and leadership skills (J. B. Carroll, director); and Hunter College, identification and classroom behavior of elementary school children each of whom is gifted in at least 1 of 5 different ways (F. B. David and G. S. Lesser, directors).

Housing the Nation's schools is a subject that now gets its first project, in the Texas Educational Agency's study of the development of standard and correlated dimensions of material components in school construction (L. R. Graham, director).

Staffing is the basic problem that the University of Illinois will attack in its project on the logical structure of teaching and developing critical thinking (B. O. Smith, director).

School organization and administration gets one project; so does *the educational aspects of juvenile delinquency*. The University of Washington will study effects of population trends and social change on education institutions (C. F. Schmid, director); Wayne University, relationships of school experiences to delinquency (W. W. Wattenberg, director).

New School Buildings in Europe

By RAY L. HAMON

THE AUTHOR, chief of the School Housing Section in the Office of Education and a member of the United States delegation to this year's International Conference on Public Education in Geneva, Switzerland, spent a month after the conference visiting some 50 new school plants in 6 European countries. Although he acknowledges the hazards of drawing general conclusions from what he calls a "flying review," he here reports some of his observations.

I WAS most cordially received in all of the countries visited and was given a red-carpet treatment far beyond my expectations. In most of the countries I was provided with a car and driver and was accompanied by an official of the ministry of education. At the individual schools we were met by the chief local education officer, the headmaster, and, in many cases, the architect.

I had asked the officials to show me their best new schools. They frequently reminded me that those I was seeing were not typical of their plants now in use, but I told them that I was looking for new ideas, that I could see plenty of obsolete facilities at home.

European educational programs and school organization are undergoing substantial changes, and these changes are being reflected in new school designs through the cooperative planning of educators and architects. I found current planning, designs, and construction techniques to be highly modern, in many respects comparing favorably with practices in the United States. In fact, on a few occasions I shocked European administrators and architects by saying: "I like that very much; I wish we could afford it."

School sites

Because of the limited time at my disposal, my visits were largely confined to urban centers, where it is difficult to acquire adequate land for school sites. As a result of this difficulty—and also because the outdoor play activities of most schools on the Continent are of a nature that does not require large areas—most school sites provide small surfaced playcourts instead of large playfields. In England, however, if land is available, the sites include large fields for organized sports. But in no case did I observe a stadium or bleachers for spectators.

I was impressed throughout Europe by the beautifully landscaped school grounds. The carefully planned and well maintained plantings and gardens even on the most limited sites put most of our grounds to shame. Pupils accept responsibility for taking care of the flowers and even come back during vacation to maintain the gardens under the supervision of the resident caretaker.

Quiet and noisy zones

The Belgian Ministry of Education has devoted considerable attention to the zoning of school buildings and grounds into quiet and noisy areas. Judiciously planted shrubbery and single-loaded corridors protect quiet classroom areas from the noises of street traffic, playcourts, lunchrooms, exercise rooms, and shops.

Bicycle parking

Because so many European children ride bicycles to school, "bike parking" is carefully provided. It takes different forms, such as unprotected outdoor racks, covered stalls, or basement parking areas approached by ramps. In many schools the bike parking areas are separate for boys and girls, each connected with the main building by a large cloakroom.

Sheltered areas

It is the practice in northern Europe to provide sheltered areas under school buildings. The south sides are left open to take full advantage of the winter sun; the other three sides are closed to keep out winter winds. These areas serve as playcourts and gathering places during inclement weather.

Classrooms

The typical classroom in the new European schools has only about 600 square feet of net floor area for 35 to 40 pupils—less than is usual in our schools. Most of these small classrooms, however, are supplemented by an alcove containing cloak hangers, storage cabinets, room toilets, wash basin, and work area. This alcove is sometimes cut out of a rectangular area, leaving an L-shaped classroom. By using a column in the corner of the supplementary area, designers reduce the overall structural span of the rectangle. The teacher's platform across the front of the classroom seems to have disappeared, except in Belgium.

Tackboards and chalkboards

Most of the new classrooms are adequately provided with eye-level tackboards of the kind currently used in this country. I saw various kinds of chalkboard materials, ranging from wood to glass. A few of the chalkboards are green, blue, or brown, but most are black.

I was especially interested in the type of chalkboard installation that seems to be standard practice throughout Europe. With minor variations, this is typical: Four linear meters of fixed chalkboard, with a 1-meter-square double-faced unit set on a 180-degree pivot 1 meter from each end of the fixed board. Thus, 8 units of chalkboard are provided in 4 units of wall space, permitting con-

cealment of chalkboard work not applicable to the class currently using the room. When the pivoted units are set at the proper angle, they form a shadow box for the projection of pictures on a screen that can be pulled down over the middle section.

Movable classroom furniture

Nearly all of the new classrooms are equipped with movable and stackable seat and desk furniture. The usual practice is individual and separate chairs and desks.

Fenestration

European designers try to get windows on two sides of every classroom, on opposite sides where possible. The windows usually extend from near the 10- or 11-foot ceilings down to the eye level of seated pupils. I saw a few rooms where they had made the mistake a few of our own architects make; extending windows down to within a few inches of the floor, thus producing more eye strain than effective light. European architects have not given so much study to the control of sky and ground reflection of daylight as some of our southwestern architects have. They use the venetian blind chiefly. Most windowpanes are large, and many of the blinds are mechanically operated. I saw only a few outside venetian-type blinds being used to control sun heat.

Libraries

As a rule, school libraries are not so large in proportion to enrollment as they are in this country, probably because pupils are specifically scheduled for a greater part of the school day and have little free time.

I observed one idea in the arrangement of their libraries that we might consider. Instead of arranging bookshelves around the walls and devoting all of the floor area to reading tables, they run their windows down to normal window-sill height and put double-facing sections of bookcases at right angles to the walls. Thus they create semi-isolated alcoves for reading tables; give the room more informality; place pupils nearer to the books; and, by breaking the ac-

cumulated glare from long banks of windows, improve the lighting.

"Halls"

In most European schools the term "halls" means a flat floor assembly room with a stage. These halls also serve as party or social rooms and for light recreation or musical games. I saw no folding chairs such as we commonly use. Instead, these halls are furnished with stacking or nesting chairs. In one I saw chairs that nest like our chainstore grocery baskets and can be pushed under the stage when not in use.

Lunchrooms

School lunchrooms are becoming standard in the new European school buildings. They differ from ours in three respects: Table service rather than cafeteria service; separate dining rooms for boys and girls served from a common kitchen; and almost exclusive use as lunchrooms. Europeans were amused but interested when I told them about our "cafeteriums."

Gymnasiums

In general, European physical education programs stress climbing and calisthenics rather than group games; and their gymnasiums are therefore essentially exercise rooms. Such a room is usually provided for every 500 pupils. Rarely did I see basketball goals in European gymnasiums; and in no case did I observe either fixed or movable seating. They build their gymnasiums for participants rather than for spectators, an idea to which we might give some serious attention.

Shower and dressing facilities

European practice is to provide bathing and dressing facilities in connection with gymnasiums in all secondary schools and in many of the elementary schools. In several infants' schools (for children 3 to 7 years old) I saw rows of small bathtubs installed at convenient heights for attendants to bathe the youngsters.

In some of the elementary schools, however, the physical education pro-

gram does not call for a bath and change of clothing. One such school provides an alcove, or "dirty" area, between the entryway and the playroom. A bench separates the alcove from the playroom, or "clean" area. The children come into the dirty area, sit on the bench and remove their shoes, pivot themselves on the bench, and step out into the clean area barefooted. After the play period they reverse the process.

Many of the schools on the Continent use the same shower rooms for boys and girls. The shower room is located between the boys' gym and the girls' gym, both of which are in use at the same time. The boys are dismissed first and have 5 minutes to shower and dress; then the girls take their turn. Although this scheme certainly puts expensive installations to good use, it must be carefully administered. Each user has maximum privacy, however, for the installations provide individual dressing compartments and shower stalls. In England the shower practice is similar to that in the United States.

Corridors

Single-loaded corridors are common. Seldom did I see a new building with rooms on both sides of the corridor. Also, there is a trend away from long corridors in the elementary schools, at least in parts of England and Germany. Classrooms are grouped in clusters around a common entryway or small lobby. Hamburg is now erecting ten 3-story elementary buildings in the form of a cross. Each of the four wings on each floor constitutes a classroom, and the center is used for traffic and stairway. Since this plan provides exits in only one direction from second- and third-floor rooms, the practice would be prohibited in many parts of the United States by fire regulations.

Foyers

Although Europeans tend to minimize long corridors, they devote considerable area to entrance lobbies or foyers, which often serve also as assembly and exhibit spaces. I ob-

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CONGRESSIONAL ACTIVITY FOR EDUCATION

By CHARLES W. RADCLIFFE, *Laws and Legislation Branch*

BY the time the 85th Congress adjourned its first session, on August 30, 1957, as many as 13,627 bills had been placed before it; 896 were of general interest to education. Of the 316 public laws enacted, 33 affect education. In addition, congressional committees held hearings on such matters as Federal assistance for school construction, education beyond the high school, college-housing loans, and assistance for the training of persons for work with mentally retarded children.

School construction

In his state-of-the-Union message, January 10, 1957, and in a special message on education 8 days later, President Eisenhower renewed his request for legislation for school construction assistance. Bills embodying his proposals were introduced in both the House (H. R. 3976 and H. R. 3986) and the Senate (S. 889).

The House Committee on Education and Labor conducted hearings on various bills that would authorize Federal aid for school construction; and on May 28, 1957, it favorably reported House bill 1 (an analysis of H. R. 1 was made in *School Life*, June 1957). After 3 days of debate, the bill was defeated on July 25.

The Senate took no action on school construction bills.

Beyond the high school

The Congress showed much interest in post-high-school education during 1957.

Of the bills introduced and still pending for post-high-school education, most would authorize some form of Federal financial assistance to students. The proposals are varied. Some would assist students in special fields; some are general. Some would assist through scholarships; others would do it through loans. A number of bills would postpone the expiration of veterans' educational

benefits; on these a subcommittee of the Senate Committee on Labor and Public Welfare held hearings. Other measures would provide for income tax credits or tax offset for tuition or other college costs.

Late in the session the Subcommittee on Special Education, of the House Committee on Education and Labor, began hearings on the general question of financial assistance to students, without reference to specific bills.

After consideration by the Senate and House Committees on Banking and Currency, the college-housing provisions of the Housing Act were amended (see P. L. 85-104, as shown below.)

Mentally retarded children

Senate bill 395 would authorize the Commissioner of Education to make grants to public or other nonprofit institutions of higher learning and to State educational agencies to assist them in training professional personnel to conduct research in or conduct training of teachers for the education of mentally retarded children. The bill was favorably reported by the Senate Committee on Labor and Public Welfare; and the Senate passed it on August 20, 1957. It is now before the House Committee on Education and Labor.

Public laws enacted

Of the 33 public laws affecting education, 5 are of widespread general interest:

Public Law 85-104 (Housing Act of 1957) amends the college-housing provisions by increasing the loan authorization from \$750 million to \$925 million and extending eligibility to nonprofit hospitals that operate schools of nursing or are approved for internship, and to State agencies established to finance housing and related facilities for public educational institutions.

Public Law 85-308 amends the Act to provide books for blind adults; Removes a \$1,125,000 limit on the annual appropriations to the Library of Congress for materials for the blind and removes the \$200,000 limit on annual Library expenditures for books in raised characters.

Public Law 85-267 extends the program of financial assistance in the construction of schools in areas affected by Federal activities (P. L. 815, 81st Cong., as amended). The act was amended to avoid counting the same children twice in determining eligibility and establishing the amount of payments.

Public Law 85-161 extends the provisions of Public Law 815, 81st Congress as amended, to Wake Island.

Public Law 85-67 (Appropriations Act for the Department of Health, Education, and Welfare) includes these amounts for the programs of the Office of Education:

- \$33,750,081 for vocational education at less than college level. Includes \$4 million for practical nurse training, and \$228,000 for education in the fishery trades and industry. Does not include the continuing appropriation of \$7,138,331 for vocational education under the Smith-Hughes Act.
- \$2,501,500 for further endowment of land-grant colleges of agriculture (Bankhead-Jones Act). Does not include a continuing appropriation of \$2,550,000.
- \$5 million for library services to rural areas.
- \$127 million for payment to school districts for maintenance and operation of schools in federally affected areas (Public Law 874, 81st Cong., as amended).
- \$41.7 million for assistance in constructing schools in federally af-

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AMERICAN EDUCATION WEEK, 1957

* * *

BY THE PRESIDENT OF THE UNITED STATES OF AMERICA
A PROCLAMATION

WHEREAS education has advanced the national welfare by enriching our culture, by providing a surer foundation for our freedoms, and by helping to prepare our citizens for the demands of each new age; and

WHEREAS our educational institutions have lifted the people of each generation to higher levels of personal living and have trained them for greater service to their fellow men; and

WHEREAS Americans are proud of their educational system and have shown their determination to widen the road of opportunity by maintaining the highest standards of scholarship:

Now, THEREFORE, I, DWIGHT D. EISENHOWER, President of the United States of America, do hereby designate the period from November 10 to November 16, 1957, as American Education Week, and I urge our people to enter fully into its observance. Let them demonstrate their appreciation of the work of our Nation's teachers, and let them show their active support for every program designed to improve our schools and colleges, which are firmly engaged in building a better and stronger Nation.

IN WITNESS WHEREOF, I have hereunto set my hand and caused the Seal of the United States of America to be affixed.

DONE at the City of Washington this sixth day of September in the year of our Lord nineteen hundred and fifty-seven, and of the Independence of the United States of America the one hundred and eighty-second.



Dwight D. Eisenhower



THE PRESIDENT PROCLAIMS AMERICAN EDUCATION WEEK

City Expenditures Per Pupil

POPOULATION and geographic location mean a difference in the number of dollars cities of the United States spend annually on current expenditures for each public elementary and secondary school pupil. Reports to the Office of Education from nearly 500 cities on what they spent in the 1955-56 school year show that the largest cities, led by those in the Northeastern States, were the heaviest spenders. Medium-sized cities of the South spent the least.

The chart below shows what cities in 1955-56 averaged for current expenditures. Highlights are these:

►Region by region, the largest cities spent the most. Nationwide average for these cities is \$322.

►Northeastern cities spent more than cities in other regions: the largest spent, \$360; the next largest, \$348.

►The largest Western cities spent more than their North Central counterparts; spending in other cities of these regions was nearly parallel.

►Southern cities, no matter what their size, spent less than all other

cities in the United States. Largest Southern cities spent \$247.

In all regions except the Northeast, the smallest cities spent more than medium-sized cities.

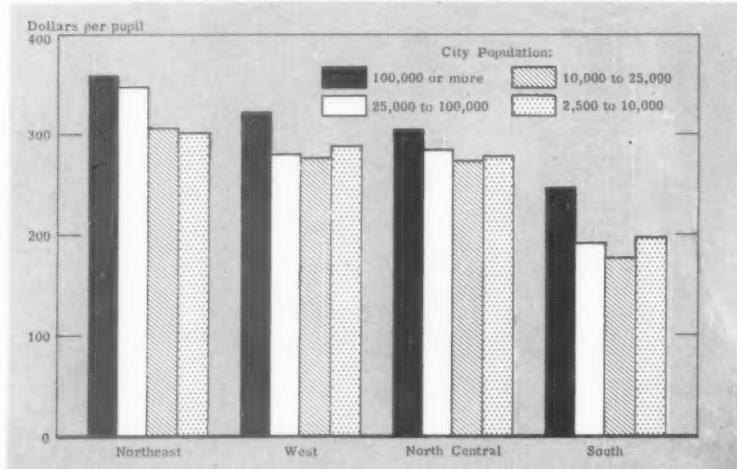
Neither geography nor size seems to change appreciably the percent of the dollar going to each of the six major current expenditure accounts.

On the average, cities divided the dollar about this way: 75 cents for instruction; 10 cents for operation of physical plant; 5 cents for maintenance of physical plant; 4 cents for administration; 3 cents each for other school services and fixed charges.

For the Nation as a whole, the two largest groups of cities spent less in 1955-56 than in 1954-55, partly because the dollar lost purchasing power and enrollments were larger than expected. On the other hand, both medium-sized and small cities reported increases for 1955-56.

Chart and text are based on Current Expenditures per Pupil in Public School Systems, 1955-56: Large Cities (Cir. No. 500) and Small and Medium-Sized Cities (Cir. No. 501), both by Lester B. Herlihy, specialist in education statistics.

In every region of the United States in 1955-56, biggest cities had the biggest current expenditures per pupil.



AVAILABLE AGAIN . . .

THE Office of Education has a new supply of the publications listed below. While it lasts, single free copies are available from the Publications Inquiry Unit, Office of Education, Washington, D. C.

The Advisory Council for a Department of Vocational Agriculture. 1951. 28 p. (Voc. Div. Bul. 243.)

Core Curriculum Development Problems and Practices, by Grace S. Wright. 1952. 194 p. (Bul. 1952, No. 5.)

Educating Children in Grades Seven and Eight, by Gertrude M. Lewis. 1954. 99 p. (Bul. 1954, No. 10.)

Educational Changes in Reorganized School Districts, by C. O. Fitzwater. 1953. 53 p. (Bul. 1953, No. 4.)

With Focus on Family Living, by Muriel W. Brown. 1952. 248 p. (Voc. Div. Bul. 249.)

The Forward Look—The Severely Retarded Child Goes to School, by Arthur S. Hill. 1952. 54 p. (Bul. 1952, No. 11.)

Home Economics in Colleges and Universities of the United States, by Beulah I. Coon. 1951. 58 p. (Voc. Div. Bul. 244.)

Learning to Supervise Schools, by Jane Franseth. 1951. 50 p. (Cir. No. 279.)

The Operation of a Local Program of Trade and Industrial Education, by William P. Loomis. 1954. 166 p. (Voc. Div. Bul. 250.)

The School Lunch—Its Educational Contribution. 1954. 27 p. (Nutritional Education Series, Pam. No. 6.)

Some Problems in the Education of Handicapped Children, by Romaine P. Mackie. 1952. 12 p. (Pam. No. 112.)

Why Do Boys and Girls Drop Out of School and What Can We Do About It? 1950. 72 p. (Cir. No. 269.)

To Cherish and Care For . . .

By EFFIE G. BATHURST and WILHELMINA HILL

OBSERVE, if you will, a whole generation of Americans growing up to cherish and care for the body of their country—for its soil and forests, its waters and wildlife.



Against the charred slopes of Tillamook Burn, in Oregon, the schoolchildren of Portland are spending thousands of hours a year helping to make a forest grow again. Each high school of the city is responsible for a particular 40 acres. Supervised by State foresters, the students gradually grow expert in tree planting and pass their skill on to seventh and eighth graders, who serve as apprentices in the plots of the high schools they expect to attend. Someday, when the forest is tall and dark again, the men and women of Portland will use and enjoy it with special pride and respect, remembering that with their own hands they helped to make it so.



In their very own 5-acre forest, the pupils of the Traverse Heights Elementary School at Traverse City, Mich., have found spots that the birds like to visit. Quietly, one by one, or in little groups, the children go there to listen and to watch, and so learn to identify many of the local birds both by appearance and by song. They have become knowing in such matters as the habitat and favorite seeds of the ruffed grouse, or partridge, and many have lovingly gone to work to supply his wants in other places, too—in corners of fields, along fences and hedgerows.

The school forest at Traverse Heights is not unique in Michigan.

Dr. Bathurst is educational specialist and Dr. Hill is specialist for social science, both in the Elementary Schools Section of the Office of Education.

The activities that Dr. Bathurst and Dr. Hill tell about here are described in greater detail, together with nearly 200 others, in their forthcoming bulletin, Conservation Experiences for Children, expected off the press next month.

To gather their material, the authors have gone directly to more than 150 schools in 28 States representative of every section of the country. The schools were selected in consultation with State departments of education, which consider them among those outstanding in their States for the conservation experiences they provide children.

The authors point out that their bulletin cites city schools as well as rural schools for their work in conservation education. Cities, they say, seem to be rising above the obstacles of urban environment and are showing commendable ingenuity in bringing nature to children and children to nature.

There are at least 600 others, all established as the result of an act passed by the State legislature in 1931. Some schools already have sold timber from their acreage, but most of the tracts are being developed slowly. No matter what their condition, all of them give the teachers and children a chance to plan, to plant, and to watch things grow.



When they really need help in their perennial campaign to keep their grounds beautiful, the children of Landover Hills School in Maryland call on the experts.

They have called on a State forester for assistance in clearing a woods, laying out nature trails, and building a pool. They have turned

to him again on what to do about an eroded hillside; and, to build the diversion ditch he suggested, they have sought the services of their county agent and many other adults besides their teachers.

But all the work they can do themselves, that they have done. They have planted hundreds of seedling trees, and heeded in some extra ones to take the place of those that die. They have planted lespedeza as cover for the seedlings; to hold the soil while the lespedeza rooted, they thatched it with straw and twine. They have planned their gardens not only to bloom in spring, summer, and fall, but to give delight even in winter.

The beauty the children have kept in the woods, the beauty they have made—all of it speaks of their persistence and enthusiasm. Even their failures they have turned into successes: when their little dogwood trees died, they planted mimosa—and triumphed.



America may have had only one Johnny Appleseed, but it has thousands of Johnny Grass-Seeds, who rarely step forth without a packet of grass-seed in their pockets and the intention of scattering it on any deserving spot they see.

The Johnny Grass-Seed movement began in Mesa County, Colo., as a means of reseeding overgrazed range-land, and through the efforts of The Izaak Walton League it has developed also in many other parts of the United States. Several other organizations have joined to make the project a success, but the schools have always played a central role and from the very beginning many of the most ardent participants have been children.

For the children in school the project has become more than a

planting exercise. It has become the reason for finding out why grasses should be planted, why soils blow away, what role wildlife plays in the problem. It has given the children a real reason for having some part or interest in demonstration plots, seed farms, and the campaign to put seed packets into the hand of everyone who buys a hunting or fishing license.



Every sixth-grader in the Highline, Wash., schools gets to spend a week at Camp Waskowitz, high in the Cascade Mountains.

The week flies by on wings, for the children have never been busier. They build nature trails, tagging the trees and shrubs; they collect specimens of all kinds and label them for the camp museum. They visit a fish hatchery, have an "experiment" of their own to study eggs, fingerlings, and larger fish. In between times they take turns caring for the orphan fawns and bear cubs the camp has adopted, some so small that they must be tenderly fed from a bottle. The children watch demonstrations, too—of good forestry practices, of fire-fighting equipment. As the days pass they show signs of growing initiative and resourcefulness and are gradually weaned from their first heavy dependence on the teachers, parents, and technical experts who accompany them. Each child plants a tree, and the seedling tree he takes home at week's end becomes a lifetime reminder of the useful lore he has gained directly from nature.



Washington is not the only State in which schools are using camps to give children first hand experiences with nature's resources. Among others are Arkansas, California, Indiana, Kentucky, Pennsylvania, Michigan, North Carolina, Ohio, Tennessee, West Virginia, and Wisconsin. In some, the conservation camp is already a well-established institution; in others it is still in pilot-plant stage. From camp to camp the activities and

programs vary widely, yet are alike in that they introduce children to local conservation problems.



In other States, children are just as active. In Kansas, a fourth grade puts wildlife programs on the air. In Wisconsin, all grades are helping to remodel and equip a camp in a school forest. In Nebraska, children of a one-room school, with cooperation from the entire community, resodded and beautified an eroded ground. In Tennessee, children gave the school board a diagram showing "paths where most of us walk," to help the board decide where to lay new walks that really protect the grass.



In ways like these—and there are hundreds more just as appealing—American children are learning about the resources in their communities. These are the ways that State Departments of education call "good ways" of teaching conservation.

What is it, precisely, that makes them good?

In the first place, they are real experiences.

Realness has its own vivid appeal. It's one thing to read in a textbook about "balance of nature" and quite another to help the gamewarden count the deer so that he can determine whether they are numerous enough to justify a hunting season. It's one thing to discuss erosion as a national problem, and quite another to tackle it as a threat to one's own dooryard.

The realness carries over to associated school activities. The child eagerly searches his textbooks and references for the answers to his real problems, or to questions arising out of real experiences; he makes other inquiry for the same reason. If he is soon to go off to camp, his studies in preparation have real purpose. He writes enthusiastically about his experiences because their realness grips his imagination. When he wants to win other people over to his particu-

lar conservation cause—the protection of quail, for instance, or the control of brush fires—he makes a poster or writes a letter; and his motivation towers above the artificial stimulation of a poster or composition contest.

They develop concepts that can find room anywhere in the educational program.

This virtue ties in closely with realness, for it is the realness of these activities that make them valuable in almost every teaching situation. They can make use of any or all of the school subjects.

No child is too young; no child is too old; and conservation experiences like these can extend from kindergarten all the way through the elementary grades.

They provide knowledge that children can put into immediate use outside of school.

When children live conservation, it becomes a way of life, to be followed both in school and out. They plant their flowers and gardens at home, pause in their play to listen to a bird or watch it swoop by, put out their picnic fires with special care, do even their fishing in conservationwise ways. If they are old enough, they have good reason for joining their parents or neighbors to set out windbreaks, plow the hills along the contours, plant the cultivated crops in strips; even before they are old enough to do the work, they understand the why of it.

They invite cooperation from the whole community.

Not many of the activities described here can be carried out by the school alone. They need the help of parents and friends. They draw on the technical experts provided by State and Federal governments, and on the resources of many organizations—the National Audubon Society, The Izaak Walton League, 4-H Clubs, the Garden Club of America, Keep America Beautiful and its many State auxiliaries, and dozens of others. By attracting everyone's support, these activities not only become more zestful

and satisfying for the participating child but advance the cause of conservation itself throughout the Nation.

They grow out of planning by both teachers and pupils.

There's no room for a hit-or-miss approach to any of these activities. Their value, educators agree, is closely related to the teacher-pupil planning that goes into them.

When teachers and children plan together they share experiences and knowledge and cut down on trial-and-error and wasted effort; they fit each child's wishes and projects into a big plan so that all the children can gain perspective and the end result will be the best for the whole school. They also resolve differences of opinion well in advance and establish the advantages of working together.

They bring out interrelationships.

Every natural resource is bound to other resources; and experiences that reveal these interrelationships are well worth having. The beaver's dam restrains the stream; a tree's roots hold the soil and its leaves give off water; the birds carry seeds and prey on harmful insects—on and on goes the story, and in the center of it all stands man. It's a wise child that feels himself a part of the great co-operating processes of nature; and it's a wise teacher who can show him that he is.

85TH CONGRESS

Continued from page 7

fected areas (Public Law 815, 81st Cong., as amended).

- \$50,000 for the President's Committee on Education Beyond the High School (\$650,000 requested to assist and encourage State committees was not appropriated).
- 87 million for salaries and expenses of the Office of Education—an increase of \$1,730,000 over last year. Includes funds for cooperative research in education under the provisions of Public Law 531, 83d Congress.

The total amount appropriated for all

programs of the Office of Education for the current fiscal year, 1957-58, was about \$46 million less than last

year, owing to the decreased requirements for school construction in federally affected areas.

THE STOLEN YEARS

Continued from page 2

The closer we look, the longer the list of deprivations grows.

Even reading, writing, and arithmetic, which the schools work hardest to preserve in the curtailed curriculum, are hurt by the change. Already we have impressive evidence that children in half-day sessions do not make the same gains in these subjects as full-time pupils.

In fact, the half-time pupil may not ever really know the exhilaration of being expertly taught; for the double-shift school system, if it does not completely discourage the talented teacher, is certain to curb his art.

We rob them of serenity.

Whether they attend in the mornings or in the afternoons, half-day children know the frustrating fatigue that follows on a tight schedule. They feel hurried; they are rarely relaxed; they never have quite enough time to finish a job. They have no time to dream, to linger with a thought.

They share their desks and materials with the children in the shift that precedes or follows them. Not only do they miss the many small satisfactions of ownership and privacy, but they are often upset by the inevitable conflicts over property.

The tensions pursue them even into their homes, where their unusual hours disrupt the family routines and build up stresses and strains in their family circles.

We rob them of guidance.

Both at home and at school, half-day children miss the reassur-

ance that comes from a firmly guiding hand.

They miss it at home if their mothers work, as many do in this country, where every third married woman holds a job outside her household. Even on a full school schedule, the children of working mothers spend some unsupervised time at home; on a half-day schedule they spend even more. For too long each day they have no one to see that they use their time wisely and well. They get into mischief, develop bad habits, and all too often lose their feeling of security.

At school they miss the advantages of supervised study, of supervised play. In the mass-instructed classroom they are neglected and submerged. The teachers, preoccupied with the complications of their double loads, cannot get to know their pupils individually. Thus the child who is not adjusting well to school, who has trouble making friends, is likely to be overlooked at the very time when sympathetic attention and wise supervision could still save him from unhappiness and failure.

We rob them of learning, serenity, and guidance. We accuse ourselves; and we stand aghast at the magnitude of our theft. Without learning, this coming generation will be poorly equipped to work, to think, to serve their fellows. Without serenity, they will know no joy. Without guidance, they will find no wisdom.

Lawrence G. Bellanca

U. S. COMMISSIONER OF EDUCATION

EUROPEAN SCHOOLS

Continued from page 6

served one new school in London where the foyer could be used to supplement the assembly hall by folding back the entire intervening wall. In general, Europeans provide more spacious and attractive entrances and lobbies than we do.

Teachers' rooms

In almost all of the new European school buildings, generous provision has been made for teachers' work-rooms and for teachers' lounges with comfortable furniture and cloak storage and toilet facilities. Often the teachers' lounges include coffee-making and snack-bar facilities.

Teachers' living quarters

After the war, teachers in Hamburg could not find suitable living quarters at prices they could afford. The city solved the problem by erecting four large beautifully landscaped garden-apartment buildings especially for teachers. Urban centers do not usually supply such accommodations, but I believe that many European villages provide living quarters for their headmasters as part of their school plants.

Caretakers' living quarters

It is usual throughout Europe to provide a comfortable house or apartment on the school grounds for the caretaker or chief custodian. Many of these quarters constitute a kind of gatehouse to the grounds. This practice is commendable; it protects school property, discourages vandalism, and encourages high standards of housekeeping.

Some technical practices

I found certain features to be more common in European schools than in ours: Radiant floor panel heating; hot-water heating through hollow metal baseboards; prefabricated components, including precast concrete elements; prestressed concrete; and provision for footscraper grills and mats in entryways.

School building costs

To compare unit costs of school buildings within the same country is difficult enough. It is even more difficult when francs and marks per square meter must be translated into dollars per square foot. But judging from the new buildings I saw in Europe and the data given me there, I conclude that for comparable facilities their costs per square foot are about the same as ours. Their costs per pupil probably run somewhat lower than ours because they generally provide a little less gross building area per pupil. The States or central ministries of education pay about 60 percent of the cost of building a school; the rest comes from local sources.

Standardization

Centralization of school administration at the Federal level in European countries has probably tended toward prototypes, stock plans, and re-use of plans to an extent that we would consider excessive, though in this respect we should compare a European country with one of our States rather than with our Nation as a whole. I was interested to learn that the use of prefabricated component parts, now extensively practiced in England, need not lead to overstandardization; I observed quite different functional layouts achieved with standardized prefabricated elements. If such elements are too large, however, there is a danger that they will handicap good space planning.

Modernization and renovation

In London I asked to see an old school building considered as borderline—too obsolete for continued service, too good to scrap. Officials said they had 100 such schools, known as the London 3-deckers. To establish a policy, they are experimenting with one of these—an elementary school with a 1,000-pupil capacity. It is well located for the area served, is structurally sound, but lacks modern teaching facilities, sanitation, and emergency exits. As far as feasible, these shortcomings are being cor-

rected by remodeling, and the entire building is getting modern lighting, acoustical ceilings, new floors, attractive color, and refinished furniture. The total cost is estimated to be about 70 percent of the cost of a new plant. In the long run, authorities believe, it would be better to scrap the school and build a new one; but the small site is surrounded by apartment buildings, and no alternate site is available. What to do with the children while the old building is being demolished and a new one erected is the problem—a problem that many American cities also face.

Vacation use of school plants

I would have preferred to visit schools while they were in regular session, but my trip coincided with the summer "holiday." As for plants in use during vacation, I saw only two—one in Belgium, one in France. The one in France is about 15 miles from downtown Paris. Each morning children from congested low-income sections of the city, where parks and playgrounds are not available, are carried by bus to the suburban school, where they enjoy supervised recreation and a free lunch. In the late afternoon they are brought back home.

Experiment in Coventry

In general, European countries provide three types of secondary schools for children in the 11-17 age bracket: (1) a grammar or classical school, (2) a technical school not too different from our technical high school, and (3) a "modern" or vocational school.

The English tradition has been to build separate boys' and girls' secondary schools in each of these categories. But in Coventry, where most school buildings were destroyed during the war, they have taken a fresh start and are experimenting with the comprehensive secondary school, incorporating all three of the above types. The authorities realize that such schools may become excessively large. To take some of the curse off the largeness, Coventry has been de-

veloping an interesting pattern known as the "house plan." A typical 1,500-student school has a 3-story academic building, a 1-story skylighted shop building, an administration building, a hall, and 5 student houses. Each of the 5 houses is really a double house accommodating 150 girls on one side and 150 boys on the other. Each side has a dining room, a study room, toilet facilities, cloak-hanging space, and counselor's office. The 2 dining rooms are served from a common kitchen, and a connecting social area is used by both girls and boys. To each of these houses is assigned a house master and a house mistress, both of whom are also part-time teachers.

This house plan accomplishes what we are attempting to achieve in this country by the "little school within a school." However, the Coventry student houses do not provide instructional areas except a homecraft or foods laboratory for the girls. In order to preserve the British tradition of "old-boy" relationship to the younger children, each group of 150 includes children of all ages.

The Bouwcentrum

Probably the most remarkable thing I saw in Europe was reconstructed Rotterdam, whose very heart had been destroyed by the war. Not only have the people rebuilt their buildings, but they have rebuilt their city, including streets, parks, playgrounds, stores, industrial plants, churches, dwelling units, and schools. A major factor in this remarkable program has been the Bouwcentrum, or building research center, a non-profit private corporation that does research and provides consultative services for private industry and the Federal and municipal governments of Holland. Its physical plant includes two large buildings devoted to exhibits of building materials and equipment and to floor plan layouts and designs for various types of structures. One of the Bouwcentrum's seven divisions is concerned entirely with school grounds, buildings, and equipment. To our view, this central

service has probably tended to over-standardize facilities, but it is doubtful if such remarkable results could have been achieved in any other way.

International cooperation

My visits to new school buildings in Europe, my discussions of planning techniques with administrators and architects, and the recommendations of the 1957 Geneva Conference on Public Education—all lead me to this conclusion: The United States should

take a leading part in establishing an International School Building Council. Under an appropriate international organization, such a Council could serve as a clearinghouse for ideas, research, and literature; could arrange for international seminars; and could sponsor the interchange of visiting teams of school administrators and architects concerned with planning and designing school facilities.

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